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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

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STATE AID FOR DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION IN NON-STATE INSTITUTIONS[1]

When presenting an idea that differs somewhat from the usual lines of thought it is necessary to present it in its broader aspects and in relation to existing problems and tendencies in order that we may have a perspective for judging its true worth. For this reason a discussion of the more immediate and practical aspects of this question of state aid for departments of education in non-state colleges and universities is postponed until a résumé of the present status and tendencies in the professional training of teachers has been presented together with the conditions that have led to the more recent changes, and the fundamental principles on which the non-state institutions base their claim for partial support for training-school facilities for the professional preparation of secondary teachers for the state, have been set forth.

One of the chief causes for the present widespread movement for better trained high-school teachers is the increased responsibility placed upon the school for the proper training of our young people. We have experienced a marked change in our economic and social life during the past two or three decades. Our industrial life has undergone such changes that it no longer supplies a first-hand knowledge of materials, processes and distribution of products, nor the feeling of human kinship which such activities engender. Our community life has long ceased to supply that simple and wholesome environment which fostered those habits of life and that idealism so essential for a social democracy. When such marked changes take place in a progressive civilization some steps must be taken to compensate for these losses. Fortunately, it is a fundamental principle in our social organization that when an institution which has made a definite contribution to the welfare of society ceases to function, and that contribution is essential to social progress, the responsibility is transferred to some other institution or a new one is organized to meet this particular need. In harmony with this principle, responsibilities have been transferred, from time to time, to the public school so that it has ceased to be a minor factor in our social organization and has become the one institution on which the whole superstructure of our civilization is based.

Another cause for this movement for the professional training of teachers is the transfer of such battle cries as "Greater Efficiency," "Economy of Time" and "Improved Product" from the shop to the schoolroom. The conditions which have led to the employment of efficiency experts to study the problems of wastes in materials, energy and time in production and to submit plans for their elimination in our industries have also led to a critical investigation of the work of our schools by educational experts who can view the situation from the standpoint of the child and social needs as well as from the point of view of the educational administrator. Teaching is becoming a profession and the young men

[1] Parts of a paper read before the Wisconsin Association of College and University Presidents and Deans, at Milwaukee, January 5, 1917.

and women entering it must undergo a certain amount of technical training which will fit them for this work. The age of the "Jack-of-all-trades" in the teaching profession as well as in our industrial life is almost passed.

The public is not only beginning to recognize the importance of professional training for teachers, but is also insisting that this training be of such a nature as to function in the school in a vital way and that it be obtained in some other way than by the trial-and-error method practised on helpless children. Evidences of these demands may be gleaned from the experiences of normal schools and some colleges and universities as well as from the requests of superintendents and supervising principals and their school boards. At times it seems that the smaller and more remote the schools, the more persistent the demand for experienced teachers, probably because they have been the greatest sufferers from the errors due to the lack of practical training.

Some valuable suggestions with reference to the problem of the practical training of teachers may be gained by a study of the experiences of the medical profession. There was a time when the training of the embryonic physicians consisted of a limited amount of scholastic work followed by a longer or shorter period of technical study under the tutelage of a practising physician, after which they became "practising" physicians themselves. This method of training was recognized as a disastrous mode of procedure both by the medical profession and the public which suffered the consequences, and as a result, high standards for admission to this profession have been established. Those entering the field of medicine to-day must have completed a high-school course, a liberal arts course in a college or university and a four-year technical course followed by a certain amount of hospital training where they acquire first-hand experience in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases under the supervision of experienced physicians so that they do not endanger the lives of their patients. The teaching profession to-day occupies much the same position that the medical profession did a generation ago. Both the educational leaders and the public are demanding that the young men and women who enter the profession possess a liberal education, be especially well grounded in the subjects they expect to teach, know something of the educational problems that will confront them and how to deal with such difficulties in the most effective way, and that they shall have had some first-hand schoolroom experience.

Unless one has kept in touch with the advance of standards in the field of education he is not likely to realize the progress that has been made and to understand the movements that are now under way. The following are examples of advanced steps taken.

1. California now has in operation a law which requires inexperienced high-school teachers to have had one year of graduate study in addition to the academic and professional courses required for the Bachelor's degree. Such graduate study shall include at least one full-year course of advanced work in one of the subjects in which the candidate expects to be recommended for certification and fifteen units or semester hours of work listed in the department of education, if such work was not offered in fulfilment of the requirements for the B.A. degree, four of which must be practise teaching.

2. Minnesota now requires beginning high-school teachers to hold the Bachelor's degree from a standard college accredited by the state superintendent, to have made a special study, from the teacher's point of view, of two or more subjects, covering

three semester hours' credit and to have had an equal amount of observation and practise teaching, with a minimum of thirty-six periods of actual teaching under the supervision of the departmental instructor.

3. In order to be eligible to the University Teacher's Certificate at the University of Wisconsin a student must have completed eight hours in addition to the one hundred and twenty required for graduation and to have had seventeen to twenty-one hours of education, two of which must be directed teaching.

4. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has passed a resolution recommending that accredited schools employ only such teachers as have had a minimum of fifteen hours of education, five of which must be practical work.

5. A joint committee from the Association of College Teachers of Education and the Association of State Superintendents has been appointed and is at work to secure legislation for the professional training of high-school teachers in all states. The recommendations adopted specify fifteen hours in education, one third of which shall be practical work.

6. In our own state at the present time, we have three different committees which have the matter of recommendations for the consin under consideration. All have been appointed in response to the need for the advancement of the academic and professional standards in the state.

On account of the lack of unity of educational efforts in this state, *it is not the legal aspect* of the question that is of greatest moment to the non-state institutions at the present time, but the demand for better trained teachers by the public and the standard set by the University of Wisconsin that must be considered. While the president, dean and head of the department of education of the state university may disclaim all intentions of creating a situation with reference to the training of teachers that would embarrass the colleges with their present equipment, the establishment of a standard for the university teacher's certificate that is much higher than the standard of the state board of examiners has had that result. When city superintendents who have employed university graduates who have had the practical experience offered by the university high school, say: "That teacher is the best beginning teacher I have ever had" or "Miss ———— is superior to any teacher with two or three years of experience that I have ever taken from one of the smaller high schools," the colleges are brought face to face with a serious situation. Such statements are the highest commendations that can be made concerning the work of the university and indicate the kind of training that should be given high-school teachers, but they also indicate the fact that when the supply of teachers exceeds the demand the colleges must either provide equal facilities for the practical training of teachers or accept a position of minor consideration in this work.

It might seem on first thought that any suggestion of cooperation with the state in meeting this problem of the practical training of college graduates who enter the teaching profession, arises from a desire on the part of the colleges to enter a field preempted by the state institutions. A little reflection reveals the fact, however, that all secondary and higher education which prepared for all professions, was originally provided by non-state institutions and that in a number of the older commonwealths no state institutions for higher education have been established. All the leading universities east of the Appalachian Mountains, including Columbia, Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell and Johns Hopkins, are

under so-called private control. In the middle west the colleges preceded the state universities. It was only when it was realized that the non-state institutions were inadequate to meet the needs for higher learning that the state gave attention to this phase of education. These efforts were not initiated with the idea of supplanting these schools, but to cooperate in the work they were doing and to supplement by specializing along lines that had not been developed. For years, in a number of our states including Wisconsin, the non-state institutions provided higher education for a greater number of students than did the state university and this situation still prevails in a few states.

It is also interesting to note that the states which maintain universities or technical schools, and certain non-state institutions in states which do not, enjoy this cooperative relationship with the federal government that the non-state colleges now seek with the state. It has been and is the adopted policy of the federal government to encourage the states, by special grants, to provide more adequately for certain forms of higher education such as agriculture, engineering and industrial training. In a like manner, nearly every state, by means of subsidies, encourages the existing schools to improve their work and to provide for needs that have not been met. Thus we see that it is the accepted principle of society to utilize and encourage those institutions that are contributing to its welfare. It is on this basis that the colleges seek the aid of the state in order that they may do more thoroughly the work they have been doing and will continue to do. Under the most favorable development, social needs will far oustrip all organized efforts to meet them and it is the injunction of society to those who are most responsible for these organized efforts, that every available resource be utilized in the most effective way.

The standard for departments of letters and science in all colleges whose graduates are accepted as candidates for higher degrees by our leading universities is fully as high as the standard in state universities. Without reflecting in any way on any state institution, it may be added that certain environmental conditions more or less peculiar to college life contribute to the upbuilding of the teaching profession. Some of these conditions, as have been emphasized by superintendents of schools who are themselves graduates of larger universities, are:

1. The teaching profession attracts and holds a larger per cent. of the superior students, since it is the one profession for which little or no additional technical training is required and the number of other activities open to them are limited.

2. The work of the college graduate is usually less highly specialized, which results in a greater adaptability so essential in fitting into the smaller as well as many of the larger high schools.

3. The extra-curricular activities of the college provide training in initiative and leadership which teachers must exercise if they are to be of greatest service in both high school and community.

4. The college fosters a seriousness of purpose and an idealism which is reflected in the lives of their graduates so that they exercise a vital influence on the young people with whom they come in contact.

While the colleges may have these conditions in their favor and may be able to make further improvements by giving greater consideration to the selection and the organization of the work to be taken by prospective teachers, reorganizing and unifying the work of the departmental teachers' courses and by using methods of instruc-

tion more in harmony with the methods that should be used in high school; the fact remains that if these favorable environmental conditions for the training of teachers are to be preserved for any great length of time, some solution must be found for the problem of providing class-room experience for the college graduate who enters the teaching profession.

Leaving out of consideration, for the time being, the possibility of securing state aid, there are only two ways by which the colleges may provide facilities for the practical training of teachers. They may either work out some plan of cooperation with their local high schools or they may establish college high schools under their own control and at their own expense. While the first method has certain features that are desirable, such as providing genuine high-school conditions and relieving the college of the expense for buildings, equipment and a certain part of the salaries of teachers, there are some very serious difficulties to be encountered. Such an arrangement precludes the proper supervision and correlation of theory and practise and there will always be certain administrative problems that are difficult to adjust and which may lead to friction and misunderstandings. Furthermore, the experiences of institutions that have tried out this plan have not always been satisfactory. Even though the colleges may be quite willing to make whatever arrangements are necessary for such cooperation and are willing to pay their part of the expense involved, such is not the case with high schools. Principals and boards of education are prejudiced against work that bears any resemblance to practise teaching as it has been conducted in some normal schools in the past, and are inclined, even when some concessions are granted, so to limit the work as to render it almost valueless.

Where this attitude of school authorities prevails, the only alternative for the college is to establish and maintain at its own expense, a college high school on much the same basis as the larger universities maintain secondary schools. A college high school adequately equipped and financed would provide excellent opportunities for the training of teachers. It would give the department of education complete control over the situation and make it possible to organize the work to the best advantage of all concerned. Teachers could be selected who have had the necessary training for directing such work. All causes for friction and misunderstandings with superintendents, principals and school boards would be eliminated, there would be no difficulty in supervision as the work would be at hand and there would be no danger of interfering with the plans of others. But with the limited support that most colleges are able to give it would be difficult to secure a sufficient number of representative pupils, maintain typical conditions and standards of work and to secure adequately trained teachers to direct the instruction.

Accepting either horn of the dilemma, the colleges meet a situation that is discouraging. If they attempt cooperation and secure it, they will have to accept situations and work under conditions which they know make it impossible to accomplish the things that ought to be accomplished. If they attempt to establish high schools of their own, they meet almost insurmountable difficulties unless greater resources than most non-state institutions possess, are available. The only real solution to the problem is to ask the state to assist in establishing and maintaining secondary schools in which the practical work in the professional preparation of teachers may be given. A reasonable amount of state aid will secure all the advantages mentioned

for the college high school and eliminate the difficulties.

Certain standards and limitations will have to be observed in any legislation embodying the above idea in order to safeguard the interests of the state and to relieve the public of all reasons for thinking that the state is contributing in any way to the support of the regular work of non-state institutions. This can be done by specifying that such secondary schools, which may be called *state high schools*, may be established only where they will provide training-school facilities for college students whose academic training is fully equal or equivalent to the academic work required in corresponding courses leading to the Bachelor's degree in the state university; by stating specifically what the non-state institution must provide in the way of grounds, buildings and equipment, the number of pupils that may attend, the length of the school year and the maximum cost per pupil; and by providing for supervision of the work and approval of all accounts by the state department of public instruction.[2]

It may seem that such a plan of cooperation by the state is a radical digression from traditional policies, but when considered in the light of the present-day practises and tendencies it is in harmony with them. It is in harmony with the policy of the state to provide training-school facilities for prospective teachers as is shown in the maintenance of elementary and secondary schools for practise teaching in state institutions. It is in accord with the state's policy of granting subsidies to encourage the professional training of teachers as in the cases of the county training schools and the teacher's training course in certain high schools of the state.

The establishment of such state high schools can also be justified from an economic point of view. If Wisconsin is to keep up with the procession in the matter of training of teachers it will be only a short time before this practical work will be an absolute requirement, as it is now in a number of states. If the colleges are not able to meet this requirement it will mean that the state university will have to do this additional work and provide two or three times the number of teachers it now trains or the work of the normal schools must be extended to meet the deficiency. Under such conditions the state would have to bear the entire expense not only for the practical training, but also for the four years of academic work. By cooperating with the colleges the state will have to bear only a part of the expense of the training schools and is entirely relieved from the expense for the academic work of the students who attend the colleges. In reality the colleges are not asking for an increase in the expenditures of the state, but merely wish legislation to be enacted that will make it possible to so utilize the money that is now spent for the secondary education of a limited number of pupils in such a way as to give this same group an equal or better high-school training and at the same time to provide facilities for the practical

[2] The bill that was presented to the state legislature and reported for favorable action by the committee on education of the state senate but was recommended for *indefinite postponement* by the joint committee on finance just after the declaration of war, created a "Committee for the Improvement of the Professional Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools." This committee was authorized (1) to subsidize high schools in cities in which are located non-state institutions of accepted standards, if opportunity for the practical training of college students who enter the teaching profession is given; (2) to establish summmer secondary schools under similar conditions; and (3) to grant scholarships to college graduates, good for one year, for graduate study in the course for the training of teachers at the University of Wisconsin.

training of college graduates who enter the teaching profession.

Cooperation of the state with non-state institutions has been practised in this country since the beginning of higher education and to-day we find instances of this relationship in a number of states. When the specialized schools were first established in Wisconsin under the federal grant, they were distributed among the colleges of the state and appropriations were received from the state by these colleges for a period of five years for this specialized work. New York grants scholarships, good for four years, to students of the state who attend institutions of higher learning. Syracuse University receives money from public funds for the maintenance of its college of forestry, and Cornell University, for its veterinary college and other specialized schools. In Indiana the tuition of high-school pupils residing in corporations not maintaining a high school, who attend approved private secondary schools, is paid from public funds. Middlebury College receives an annual appropriation from the state of Vermont for its department of education. A number of other cases could be cited, but these are sufficient to illustrate the principle that society utilizes to its best advantage those institutions that contribute to its needs.

Summarizing: (1) Teaching is rapidly becoming a profession and the movement for the practical training of secondary teachers is well under way. (2) If the colleges which have had a large part in the training of high-school teachers and provide certain environmental influences which should be fostered both for the welfare of the teaching profession and society, are to continue to exercise these influences, they must take some steps in the near future to provide first-hand class-room experience for its graduates who enter the teaching profession. (3) From the standpoint of precedents, economy, educational policy and larger social principles, the colleges are justified in asking the state to aid in the establishment and maintenance of state high schools to provide facilities for the practical training of teachers, and the best interests of the state demand that this opportunity and need for cooperation be brought to the attention of those in authority and that they be persistently urged to enact legislation that will lead to its realization.

Lester B. Rogers
Lawrence College

THE STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS OF ROMAN EDUCATION[1]

There is a difficulty in correctly estimating the strength and weakness of Roman education. This is readily appreciated when one considers that it extended over a period of 1,000 years, almost as long as it has been since the downfall of Rome. In that time it underwent certain marked modifications, which radically changed at least its external form. The term Roman education, therefore, may mean an original type of education, uncontaminated or unimproved by outside influences; it may mean the Hellenized Roman education of the late Republic and early Empire; or it may mean this same Hellenized form gone to seed in the later Empire. I am going to assume that by Roman education we mean the original type, modified materially, of course, by Greek influence, and eventually considerably obscured by it, but still always present as the basis of education, and representing what is the real contribution of Rome to the science of education. The latest stage of Roman education it will perhaps be well to pass over lightly. It was neither fish nor fowl, neither Roman nor Greek. In this period Rome was appar-

[1] Pennsylvania State Educational Association, Harrisburg, Pa., December 27, 1916.

ently wholly under the spell of Greece, but, as Mommsen says in another connection, "the enchanter's cup was now stale." The Greece Rome knew at this time was not that of Sophocles or Plato, but a later tinsel, Alexandrian imitation.

Now to test the educational system of the Romans it will be well to consider for a moment the purpose of education. We shall perhaps all agree that it has three main aims, among many subordinate ones:

1. To adapt the child to the life he is to lead as a man; that is, to make him function in society. If he is to be a carpenter and nothing else, the training that produces a skilled carpenter suffices. If he is to be a soldier, his education must make him a good fighter and will vary according as the national type of warfare varies. If the boy is to be something more than a hand worker or a fighter, if he is to be a fully equipped citizen of the state, then his training must be broad enough to include whatever citizenship stands for.

2. To make the child morally worthy; to teach conduct. The writer is quite aware that some deny that this is a function of the school, but he believes that then, as now, not only the ability, but the will to act righteously is a desideratum in school training. This may or may not be connected with religion, but in a state where religion and ethics are not inseparable, mere religious instruction would not be sufficient.

3. To develop the intellect in such a way and to such a degree that the child will attain to the power of independent and constructive thought. By this means only is any material intellectual progress possible.

A system of education is strong or weak according as it meets fully or imperfectly these three ideals. On the last two criteria, education for conduct, and for intellectual power, all systems of education may be judged alike. But to estimate an educational system on the basis of the first criterion, preparation for life, we must have a clear notion of what the nation's life is. We must remember that in early Rome, the Roman was to be a farmer, to a certain extent a trader, a soldier, a citizen, with such stress on citizenship as to mean active participation in the affairs of the state. Beyond this narrow range the Roman hardly went. There were no professions or specialties as yet, and all received essentially the same education. Later, of course, specialization appeared to a certain extent, in that these qualities broke apart, and the same man was no longer farmer and soldier and advocate, but there was nothing like the complexity of occupations we have, for we must not forget that many occupations to which our students look forward were then open only to slaves and freedmen, and were not prepared for by the Roman system of education as such.

Now keeping in mind these three tests of education, let us look at certain features of strength in the Roman system:

1. Roman education was preeminently practical, as opposed to theoretical. This was quite in keeping with the national ideal. The boy was taught arithmetic, not with any thought of developing accuracy, care and mental power, but because in Roman life calculation was found necessary. He learned a little geometry because it was found serviceable in measuring land. But he did not take to the theoretical arithmetic and advanced mathematics of the Greeks, because he felt it useless. Witness in the "Ars Poetica" of Horace (326 ff.) where the teacher asks Albinus's son to tell him what remains if from a quincunx an uncia be subtracted. When the boy replies, "A triens," the teacher exclaims, "Good, you will be able to keep your property." Clearly a practical end. This Roman practicality is reflected by a freedman of Petronius, who says, "I have not learned any

of your mathematics or esthetics or nonsense of that sort, but I can read the letters on stones, and I can divide by a hundred in money, measures and weights." And don't belittle the freedman's education by disparaging his power to divide by a hundred, for you must remember that the Roman system of notation was a confusing complex of the decimal and the duodecimal systems. If you think it absurdly easy, tell offhand what is the hundredth of £278, 6s., 8d.

But we must not underestimate this practical education for the Roman, whose chief function is service to the state. He must be a citizen and do his part, only his part must not be a theoretical or visionary or idealistic or speculative one; he must produce something that will work, he must, in our picturesque modern phrase, "deliver the goods." In this cry for usefulness and efficiency he is quite a modern American, or better, a modern German. And is this not the secret in part of Rome's greatness? Other nations furnished the brains, did the thinking and the inventing; Rome put the invention on the market. Eastern peoples invented or discovered the arch. The Etruscans brought it from the East to Rome. But of what value was it to the world until Rome actually put it into use and swung the great spans of the Basilica of Constantine, the arches of the Pont du Gard, the barrel vaults of the Coliseum, and the beautiful dome of the Pantheon, still standing to awaken the admiration of modern men? Let us give all credit to the Greek, the architect, for his marvelous constructive skill, but let us not fail to give credit also to the Roman, the engineer, for transmuting Greek ideas into the amphitheaters, the cathedrals, the aqueducts of the world. Greek philosophy was largely a *theory* of living, Roman philosophy a principle of *living*. To use a homely figure, Rome, as we see it now, was a sort of digesting apparatus, to receive raw materials from other nations, adapt them to use, and send them out as life-giving fluids to be assimilated by the world. To this fact we owe the practical and working qualities of our law, our governmental systems —even republics—our architecture, our Christianity.

2. But Roman education was more than merely practical. It had invariably an ethical ideal. The controlling motive taught boys was duty. It is no mere chance that the gerundive, troublesome to the beginner in Latin, occurs so often in Latin speech. From the child's earliest years he was taught the greatest reverence for the family and the state. And this is more than a little apart from religion, for pietas was not at all religious rectitude—goodness, in our sense—it was loyal devotion to the family. Obedience to parents and to the laws of the state was a matter of course. With such a system there could not be the widespread disregard for authority we have now in America. Education, especially early education, was really the formation of habits of action, rather than intellectual development. Horace has a fine set of odes outlining the qualities of the ideal man. He says, practically, "If I had a boy, I should subject him to a hard, military type of training, I should educate him in the school of hard knocks. And for what purpose? To give him courage, and steadfastness, and self-control, and reverence for the state. But I should not make him a weakling, a 'mollycoddle'; I should give him great strength of mind and body, but I should see to it that this strength is under complete control." This is essentially a moral view of life. The legendary heroes of Rome show this: Scævola, Regulus, Brutus, Decius. And it matters not a whit that some modern historical critics attack the truthfulness of the traditions. Perhaps the inspiriting story of Regulus is false,

but what nation without a high moral ideal could invent such a legend? The very popularity of these traditions shows that they must have awakened a response in the hearts of the people of Rome. And in the main, examples of the moral virtues and vices are always from real life. There was no fiction, no room for fiction. If the Roman wanted to make treachery ugly, he didn't invent a Uriah Heep, he pointed to Hannibal. If he would glorify honor and courage, he made no Sir Gallahad, he could point to countless men who had actually lived. That is, he taught character by biography. The boy who read or heard the stories of ancient Rome could not fail to be attracted to emulation of their great deeds. Indeed, one of the finest educative books to-day is Plutarch's "Lives of Illustrious Men," and especially effective because they are *real* men. In 155 B.C., when this good old Roman ideal was still unimpaired by external influences, Carneades, the Greek philosopher, came to Rome and delivered an eloquent address in the senate in glorification of justice. The next day, to illustrate his contention that human knowledge is uncertain, he delivered another oration refuting all his former arguments. Now to the Greek this versatility and intellectual skill were admirable. It was a proper fruit of his training. But with such a moral education as the Roman had had, with his elevation of honor and righteousness over intellectual acrobatics, it is not surprising that he drove Carneades from the city on the ground of preaching immorality. Even in the later, more degenerate Roman education, when the highly educated man was the Orator, the universally accepted definition of the orator was Quintilian's famous "Vir bonus dicendi peritus," a good man skilled in speaking. And when the younger Pliny wants to revile his bitter enemy Regulus—seemingly the only enemy this sweet-spirited Roman gentleman ever had—he calls him a "Vir malus dicendi imperitus." What are the ideal qualities of Roman manhood? Dignitas, moderatio, humanitas, pietas; a consciousness of worth, self-mastery, refinement, devotion to the natural relationships of the family and the state. This is largely an ethical philosophy of life, and makes for strength.

3. In the third place, at least in the earlier period, which represents *real* Roman education, training was centered in the home. There was at first no other school. And the parents were the teachers. Have you read in Plutarch's "Life of Cato" the fine personal supervision Cato gives to the education of his young son, even from his infancy? Modern life is so complex that it is probably impossible for the father to assume direct responsibility for the education of his sons, but in the few cases where we see it done now-a-days the results justify the sacrifice it involves. Of course a little later the pedagogue system came in; that is, the boy was turned over to the care of a slave, who escorted him to school and was in general responsible for his conduct. But the slave was of dubious character and might easily be bought off by the shrewd boy. Even then the old custom of personal supervision sometimes survived, as in the case of Horace's father.

4. Again, Roman education was always in the earlier days, and generally afterward, by apprenticeship, the primitive laboratory method. That is, the boy learned by imitation. He saw and helped his father work in the field. The young Octavius, when too young to be in the army, accompanied his uncle Julius Cæsar to the war in Spain and learned the art of war and generalship not out of books, but by direct contact with the greatest of Roman generals. The youth of noble family accompanied his father to the senate and learned there at first hand the greatness of

the state and the problems confronting it. Even religion itself was largely a matter of copying the ritual acts of the pater familias as he performed the ceremonial sacra of the family. It is interesting to see that this apprenticeship type of education, which died out so long ago in Rome, is now being revived in the place of its birth in the Montessori system.

5. In the educational ideal, which reached its culmination in the training of the Orator, who, though it is sometimes forgotten, was much more than an orator, who was the most highly cultured Roman citizen, there was a distinct recognition of the double function of education, namely, knowledge and expression. Quintilian, the greatest of Roman college professors, says: "After much meditation, I have been led to the conclusion that wisdom without eloquence is of little use to a state, while eloquence without wisdom is often positively harmful and never of any value." Our notion of a scholar hidden away behind books at his desk in a study, which prevailed here only recently, would have found no acceptance in Rome. He must know, and he must transmit into life and expression.

For these reasons, then, Roman education had elements of strength: it was practical, it was ethical, it was centered in the home, it was by the apprenticeship method, and it demanded expression or interpretation of knowledge to public life. It will be seen that the Roman boy was adapted to the life he was to lead by a practical, home apprenticeship education, and that he was taught right conduct by the ethical basis of his training as also by his home environment. Nothing has as yet appeared which gives him real development of intellectual power, which will make him progressive and constructive, unless it be the facility of expression which he gets through oratorical training. But this is a very narrow field for the development of power.

On the other hand, there are clearly, as in any system, elements of weakness. We can class them roughly under two heads. Roman education was unstandardized and it was narrow.

1. It was unstandardized. By this I mean that there was no centralization of control of schools, no norm or standard for education. The state assumed no responsibility for education. That was a matter for the family, or at best for a group of families. The younger Pliny has an interesting letter in which he tells his friend Tacitus how he assisted in founding a school at Comum, his native place. It was done by the fathers of town clubbing together and hiring a teacher to come and open a school, Pliny, Carnegie like, making a subscription proportionate to theirs, and for the same reasons Mr. Carnegie assigns. But, the point is, it came wholly from private initiative. And while there was presumably a roughly recognized course of study, it is easy to see that the teacher, who would, like most teachers, have a bent or even a fad, would be very likely to overstress his Stoicism, or his geometry, or his interest in debate at the expense of everything else. One of the great steps we have taken forward in American education in the last generation is just this matter of standardization. Thanks partly to governmental and state institutions, partly to the Carnegie Foundation, partly to denominational organizations, we can now talk a universal language with reference to educational institutions, in terms of units and hours, and we can interchange students between almost any two institutions in any part of the country without loss of time and energy. Such a thing was quite impossible in Rome.

2. More important, Roman education was

narrow, in some directions hopelessly so. It was narrow in the individuals reached, for education, so far, at least, as it was worthy of the name, was confined wholly to the upper classes, and these were a distressingly small percentage of the whole. Do we forget that of the million and more inhabitants of Rome in Augustus's day, probably less than fifty thousand belonged to the senatorial and equestrian orders, to which education was largely confined? And if from these we subtract the women, who numbered nearly half, we have a pitifully small number for an educated class. No system which neglects twenty-nine out of thirty boys is very worthy of the name. That meant that the vast majority of Romans received no education at all, beyond the most absolute necessities. The result, for a country that was eventually governed by its common soldiers—for not long after the beginning of the Empire they actually selected the emperors—can easily be imagined. This is not the least cause of the fall of Rome. Education failed hopelessly to amalgamate the classes of Roman society. The problem of Rome was not unlike the problem of America with the millions of immigrants who have come to us. It may be said in rather homely fashion that we must eat the immigrant or he will eat us, a problem we are trying to solve, and indeed are solving, very largely by universal education. The result has generally been that with us a third, sometimes a second generation immigrant is no longer a foreigner, but an enthusiastic American. But even with our all-inclusive and theoretically compulsory educational system, it is sometimes pretty hard on even a very good digestion. But consider what would by this time have happened to us, if there had been no education at all for the stranger within our gates.

It was narrow in that there was advanced education for only men. It may be that girls went not even to the elementary school, and had only the training they got at their mothers' side. It is a curious fact that in all Latin literature there is no certain statement that makes the matter clear. But if there was any school education for women, it hardly went beyond the rudiments of the three R's. It surely could not have gone far when the Roman girl was expected to marry at from thirteen to sixteen. A girl of our college freshman age was already an "old maid."

It was narrow in that it was ultra-conservative. Now conservatism is a commendable quality in education, for nothing is worse than running off after every new fad, but when conservatism is carried to the extent of rigidity, of incapacity to change, it passes from a virtue to a vice. Better an occasional fad than stagnation. Without question, one of the elements of strength in Rome was reverence for mos maiorum, the ways of the past. It was the great cornerstone of Roman morality. It produced a great character. But it was bought with a great price, for it was so rigid and lacking in the power of adaptation to changing conditions that it was at times woefully unable to cope with the new problems which came to Rome when it began to expand. In reading Heitland's "Roman Republic" recently the fact I was most struck with was not the marvelous success of Rome in attaining to world empire, not the building of a wonderful governmental structure; it was Roman incompetence. From the time of the conquest of Italy for two centuries Rome was quite unable to produce men capable of dealing with new situations and new problems. For example, in four hundred years of warfare Rome did not learn that the custom of annual consulships, that is, of having a new commanding general in the field every

year regardless of conditions, the custom of "swapping horses in the middle of the stream," was a dangerous custom. And that she did not learn was an educational defect. That Rome was not beaten was due not to her capacity, but to an unparalleled vitality. And in the end the Republic fell into a monarchy from sheer political incapacity to meet new conditions. Good government does not just happen, it is attained to. Perhaps Rome could not have been saved by education, but more elasticity would at least have postponed and might have averted the evil day. This narrowness may be illustrated by the fact that Horace as a boy studied as his standard of literature Livius Andronicus, of two hundred years before, a man of little literary excellence, but whose books were put into the schools when there was nothing else and could not be got out again. Our use of "The Canterbury Tales" as a basis for learning reading in the grades would be better, for Chaucer has at least literary value.

It was narrow in that there was very little real intellectual training. The fact that it was the strongest censure of a man to say he had acted contra morem maiorum, in opposition to the ways of his ancestors, may be good for ethics, but it is bad for intellectual advance. In Rome's whole thousand years she showed almost no constructive thought. The science of the Empire was hardly better than that of the Kingdom. If we except a certain facility in governing conquered peoples, a skill in making treaties forced on Rome by the necessities of her experience, we are forced to confess that Rome showed little constructive power. Was this not in large measure due to the fact that Rome's education consisted so much in memoriter learning, mere rote memorization, which is just what real education is not? We have not got wholly over it in our day, but we are at least on the right road, and are infinitely ahead of the Romans.

It was narrow in its curriculum, in that higher education was too exclusively literary. It was not at all that oratory was useless, but that Roman education was too narrowly limited to oratory. The native practical Roman ideas of education were never allowed to grow naturally. They were blighted in the bud by the new education which came in and was not wholly adapted to the Roman character. In the end it was debased into a wholly formal type of education completely out of touch with real life.

In so far, then, as Roman education was unstandardized, and was narrow, rigid, inelastic, it failed in the test of adaptation and in that of training for power.

We may, therefore, sum up briefly by saying that as a preparation for life, Roman education had certain elements of strength and some of weakness; we must balance its practical trend and its apprenticeship method against its inelasticity. As a moral training, it produced a sturdy, though sometimes an unlovely character. The elder Cato, always quoted as the typical Roman, was an admirable man, but would he have been an agreeable neighbor? As a training for power, for constructive thinking and intellectual advance, it was almost wholly lacking.

Roman education, then, like any other system, had its virtues and its defects. Happy are we if we can imitate the one and reject the other.

C. F. Ross
Allegheny College

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

AMERICAN UNIVERSITY UNION IN EUROPE

Steps have been taken for establishing in Europe, probably in Paris, an American University Union, the purpose of which will be to

provide at a moderate cost a simple club for American college men, both graduates and undergraduates, who are in Europe for military or other service in the cause of the Allies.

According to *The Harvard Alumni Bulletin* an important feature will be an information bureau to aid American colleges, parents, and friends in securing information about college men in all forms of war service. Through this agency reports may be had on casualties, the sick and wounded may be visited, and a personal means of communication be established between those in America and their friends in the service.

As has been said, the headquarters of the Union will be in Paris, provided the American troops are not officially excluded from that city. In that event, the headquarters will be in the city most favorably situated for the purpose of the Union. It is highly probable that a branch will be set up in London, and in other places, besides Paris, in France.

The plans for the Union were considered first at a meeting held in New York late in June. Representatives of fifteen of the leading American universities and colleges attended, and other institutions appointed delegates who were unable to attend. The meeting was called by Mr. Stokes, the Secretary of Yale University, which had previously officially voted to establish a Yale Bureau in Paris, but had later modified its plans in order to join in an undertaking that would make provision for all American college men.

The following officers and board of trustees were elected: Secretary Stokes, of Yale, chairman; President Hutchins, of the University of Michigan, vice-chairman; Trustee Henry B. Thompson, of Princeton University, treasurer; Roger Pierce, of Harvard University, secretary; President Finley, of the University of the State of New York; President Goodnow, of Johns Hopkins University; President Graham, of the University of North Carolina; Mr. John Sherman Hoyt (Columbia), nominated by the Y. M. C. A.; and Mr. Dwight W. Morrow (Amherst), nominated by the American Red Cross.

The thirty-three institutions whose names are here given have signified their intention of joining the Union:

Amherst College.
Bowdoin College.
Brown University.
University of California.
Carnegie Institute of Technology.
University of Chicago.
Colorado State Teachers College.
Columbia University.
Cornell University.
Dartmouth College.
Delaware College.
University of Georgia.
Harvard University.
University of Indiana.
Iowa State University.
Johns Hopkins University.
Lafayette College.
Leland Stanford Junior University.
Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
University of Michigan.
Michigan College of Mines.
University of Missouri.
University of North Carolina.
Princeton University.
University of South Carolina.
University of Vermont.
University of Virginia.
University of Washington.
Wesleyan University.
Williams College.
Worcester Polytechnic Institute.
University of Wyoming.
Yale University.

The financial support of the Union is to be derived from college memberships and club memberships. The membership fees are $500, $250, or $100, accordingly to whether the institution has over 10,000 graduates, less than 10,000 but more than 5,000, or less than 5,000 graduates. Payment of these membership fees entitles the graduates, undergraduates, and prospective students of the subscribing institutions to all the privileges of the Union. University clubs and other organizations of American college men will be invited to take out club memberships, the fee for which is $100, thereby obtaining the same privileges as are obtained through college membership. Honorary memberships have been extended to the United States Military Academy at West

Point, and to the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis.

THE REGISTRATION OF NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

Considering the expected drop in registration owing to war, New York University shows most encouraging statistics. With the extramural division, numbering approximately 3,000, yet to be heard from, 3,658 students have been registered as against 4,127 last year, showing a loss of but 469. A number of juniors and third-year men are on leave of absence, in some cases extending into November, for federal service.

When the university closed last June credit had been given over 400 men, exclusive of those excused for farm duties, on account of the call to colors. These figures do not include seniors who waited to graduate, or men enlisted or drafted after commencement, for which there are no statistics. Many of the 400 are now in France. Among those from the school of commerce who sailed with the New York University Ambulance Red Cross No. 7, now in France, are Charles Brown, Jr., Everett Brown, George K. Chrismer, George F. Jones, Frank T. Kalley, Philip N. Hart, Charles R. Rice.

The school of commerce, from which, owing to the age of students, a big drop was expected, shows a registration of 2,019 as against 2,249 last year. The college of arts and pure science and the school of applied science, commonly known as "the College," at University Heights, show a registration of 434 as against 659 last year in face of the fact that 50 per cent. of the students were in federal service prior to the June commencement, and there are no women at the Heights. In the medical preparatory school, which is part of "the College," there has been a falling off of 50 per cent., owing partly to the stricter state law which now requires two years of preparatory work, where heretofore only one has been necessary.

In the Bellevue Hospital and Medical College registration shows a falling off of but 12, or a registration of 364 against 376 last year.

The school of law, in spite of the fact that 30 were given credit as of June, 1917, for military duty, exclusive of farming or census, and in spite of the fact that Columbia is this year admitting women law students, shows a registration of 664 as against 701 last year.

Washington Square College shows an increase of at least 25 per cent., while the graduate school and the school of pedagogy remain normal. Freshman classes in all the eight university schools are normal or above normal, with the exception of the school of commerce, which registers 1,772 in the freshman this year as against 2,193 last year.

Of the professors at the front, Dr. Chester F. S. Whitney is with the University Ambulance Corps in France; Professor William S. Edsell is chief electrician of the Submarine Base in London; Eric A. Milliard, C.R.T., former director of the Efficiency Bureau, is with the Canadian Expeditionary Forces; Professor Roy Hunter, Ph.D., is somewhere in France; Dr. Horace W. Stunkard is with the Aviation Corps in France. Professors Otis A. Wallace, Theodore H. Beard, H. Hammond Pride, Everett H. Pierson, Perley L. Thorne, William A. Lynch, Joyce Kilmer, 7th Regiment, and Carroll B. Reece are holding commissioned offices in America or France. Eighty students were known to be in the navy up to July last.

THE FRANKFORTER AND DIETRICHSON CASE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Last spring Gerhard Dietrichson, an instructor in the department of chemistry, preferred charges against the dean of the school of chemistry. The regents appointed two professors to take testimony; about 800 typewritten pages were submitted to the regents.

This testimony was carefully reviewed by President Burton and other members of the board, and, at a meeting held August 20, the following action was taken:

Voted, that the board of regents, after investigation and consideration of the charges made by Mr. Gerhard Dietrichson against Dean George B. Frankforter, finds

1. That there is no support for any charge of dishonesty, lack of veracity or misappropriation of property.

2. That the relations of Mr. Gerhard Dietrichson with the university have been properly terminated.

3. That the situation does not require at the present time any finding concerning any of the other charges.

4. That the hearing has shown such evidence of disorganization and lack of cooperation in the school of chemistry that a committee consisting of the president of the university, the president of the board of regents and the chairman of the executive committee is appointed to investigate and report to this board the advisability of a reorganization of the school of chemistry.

The committee, authorized under section four, is at work and will make definite report to the board later. The board will then take such action as this report may show to be necessary and finally dispose of the whole matter.

THE TEACHERS' RETIREMENT LAW IN NORTH DAKOTA

The law providing for a teachers' retirement fund in North Dakota has been held constitutional by the supreme court. A test case was sent up from Ransom county and the following is the decision of the court, written by Chief Justice A. A. Bruce:

1. Section 1515 of the Compiled Laws of 1913, as amended by Chapter 140 of the Laws of 1915, which provides that "each county treasurer shall set aside from the county tuition fund and transmit to the state treasurer a sum equal to ten cents for each child of school age in his county, and that the state treasurer shall credit such money to the teachers' insurance and retirement fund," is not unconstitutional or violative of the provisions of Section 175 of Article 2 of the Constitution of North Dakota, which provides that "No tax shall be levied except in pursuance of law, and every law imposing a tax shall state distinctly the object of the same, to which only it shall be applied."

2. A tax which is levied for the purpose of pensioning the public-school teachers of a state is not unconstitutional nor in conflict with Section 185 of Article 12 of the Constitution of North Dakota which provides that "Neither the state nor any county, city, township, town, school district or any other political subdivision, shall loan or give its credit or make donations to or in aid of any individual, association or corporation, except for the necessary support of the poor."

3. A subsequent authorization by the legislature of the use of a portion of a tax which is levied for general school purposes to aid in the creation of a teachers' pension fund is germane to the general purposes for which the tax was originally authorized, and is not in violation of Section 155 of the Constitution of North Dakota, which provides that "No tax shall be levied except in pursuance of law, and every law imposing a tax shall state distinctly the object of the same to which only it shall be applied."

4. An exact enumeration of all of the items of expenditure to which the revenues of the state may be applied is not required by Section 155 of the Constitution of North Dakota.

5. There is no constitutional requirement in North Dakota that taxes levied for a general public purpose must be expended and disbursed in the taxing district in which they are collected, and no valid objection can be made to a state teachers' pension fund on account of the fact that the taxes are collected generally throughout the state and the pensions are not always paid to teachers who reside in the county or district where the tax is paid or collected.

6. The establishment of a state teachers' pension fund is a public purpose and enterprise and within the power of the state legislature.

EXPENDITURES OF THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

Part III. of the annual report of the Rockefeller Foundation deals with the expenditures of the foundation in 1916. The total expenditures of the foundation and its subsidiaries were $6,320,697.99, of which nearly $1,000,000 was designated for war relief work.

Expenditures were as follows:

International Health Board	$505,900.99
China Medical Board	549,558.57
War relief	966,667.55
Investigation of industrial relations	15,048.27
Scientific studies of government problems	50,000.00
Gifts and pledges to unaffiliated agencies for objects designated by the foundation	1,591,108.01
Gifts for objects designated by the founder in accordance with letter of gift of March 6, 1914	2,535,846.13
Payment on account of special fund of Laura S. Rockefeller	3,000.00
Payment on account of special fund of John D. Rockefeller	1,850.00
Administration, equipment, library, etc.	101,718.47

Included in the items of war relief were:

Armenian and Syrian relief	$490,000.00
Belgian relief	30,000.00
International committee of Young Men's Christian Associations	295,000.00
Polish relief	25,531.32

Prisoners of war, welfare work	378.00
Servian relief	59,562.72
Turkish relief (American Red Cross).	25,000.00
Other small contributions	6,377.00
Administration	34,818.51

Control of hookworm disease, under the International Health Board, was begun last year in four countries—Siam, Ceylon, Salvador, and Brazil—in addition to fifteen other foreign countries and eight southern states. Arrangements were also made to begin similar work in the Fiji Islands, Papina, and Queensland, Australia.

The foundation has also established, in cooperation with the authorities of Johns Hopkins University, a school of hygiene and public health, appropriating $267,000 to that end. The new institution opens this month, with Dr. William H. Welch as director. It will provide instruction and research facilities in hygiene, sanitation, and preventive medicine for physicians, medical students, chemists, biologists, engineers, and especially men who desire to fit themselves for a career in public health.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

David Allen Anderson, formerly associate professor of education in the University of Washington, has accepted the headship of the department of education and psychology in the Pennsylvania State College. Professor Anderson taught during the 1917 summer session at the University of Illinois.

At Swarthmore College Professor Charles Fisher, of the Department of Education, West Chester State Normal School, and Professor S. B. Davis, of the Department of Education of Ursinus College, will jointly undertake the larger part of the work, which was formerly done by Professor Bird T. Baldwin, who has resigned to accept the directorship of the Bureau of Child Welfare at the State University of Iowa.

Dr. H. H. Meeker has been elected head of the department of education of Marshall College, to take the place of Miss Anna Cummings, who resigned last June.

H. G. Wheat, who served several years as superintendent of the schools of Williamstown, W. Va., has been elected as head of the department of education of the Glenville Normal School.

Dean E. J. Babcock, of the College of Engineering of the University of North Dakota, is acting president of that institution pending the election of a successor to Dr. Frank L. McVey, who resigned to accept the presidency of the University of Kentucky.

A. S. Faulkner, of Durant, Okla., has been appointed president of the Northwestern State Normal School at Alva, Okla.

The latest reports from Dr. William H. Maxwell, New York City Superintendent, are favorable for recovery. The operation was for the removal of a small ingrowth which had troubled him. It is not known when Dr. Maxwell expects to return to duty.

Mr. H. W. Anderson, of Iowa City, Ia., has been appointed director of research work at Omaha, Nebr. Mr. Anderson will direct the activities of the bureau in the scientific investigation of school conditions and progress of pupils.

H. H. Baish, formerly superintendent of the Altoona public schools and head of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association in 1915, has been appointed to a position in the Federal Bureau of Education at Washington.

Professor Roscoe W. Thatcher has been appointed dean of the department of agriculture of the University of Minnesota in succession to Dr. F. A. Woods, who resigned early in 1916. Dr. E. M. Freeman, assistant dean of the department of agriculture, has been made dean of the college.

Mr. E. E. MacNary, director of the Springfield (Mass.) Vocational School, has been employed by the United States Shipping Board to take charge of the organization of industrial training in the shipyards which hold contracts with the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

Miss Isabel Ely Lord, of the Pratt Institute, has been appointed chief of the Home Economics Section of the Food Conservation Division of the U. S. Food Administration.

Professor Josephine T. Berry, chief of the division of home economics of the Uni-

versity of Minnesota, has been appointed assistant director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, with special charge of the work in home economics. Miss Berry left Minneapolis on August 11 to take up the work of her new position.

Walter S. Edmund, of Median, Ohio, has been appointed superintendent of schools at Sandusky.

The Secretary of State for India has appointed Miss Alice Sergeant to the Indian Educational Service to be inspectress of schools in Madras.

The fifty-third convocation of the University of the State of New York was held in Albany, October 18 and 19. The sessions will be devoted to the services of educational institutions during the war. Addresses are to be made by J. J. Jusserand, Ambassador from France; Boris A. Bakhmeteff, Ambassador from Russia; Dr. Henry van Dyke, former Minister to the Netherlands; Sir Robert Falconer, Thomas W. Lamont, Professor Captain Fernand Baldensberger and President Henry N. McCracken of Vassar College. A tablet will be unveiled to the memory of Dr. Andrew S. Draper, commissioner of education, at the opening session.

Memorial services, attended by many nationally known educators, were held at Hampton, Va., on October 14, in honor of the Rev. Dr. Hollis Burke Frissell, president of Hampton Institute from 1893 until his death, last August. Addresses on the life and work of Dr. Frissell were delivered by the Rev. Dr. Francis G. Peabody, of Cambridge, Mass., who is a vice-president of the Hampton board of trustees; William M. Reid, Hampton class of 1877, a lawyer of Portsmouth, Va., who is president of the Hampton alumni association, and James Hardy Dillard, of Charlottesville, Va., president of the Jeanes and Slater boards.

Dr. Frederick Henry Sykes, until recently president of the Connecticut College for Women, died suddenly of heart disease at Cambridge, Mass., on October 14. Dr. Sykes was born in Queensville, Ont., on October 21, 1863; was graduated from the University of Toronto in 1885 and took post-graduate courses at Johns Hopkins and Oxford. From 1903 to 1910 he was professor of English literature at Columbia University and for three years afterward was director of technical education at Teachers College. From Teachers College he went to the Connecticut State College for Women. He resigned last June at the request of the trustees, with whom he disagreed concerning the administration of the college.

William Wilson Baker, professor of Greek at Haverford College since 1904, died on October 11, at the Nôtre Dame Hospital, Manchester, N. H., to which he had been removed about three weeks ago, following a serious accident due to a fall, which necessitated an operation.

Professor Amos Peaslee Brown, former professor of mineralogy and geology at the University of Pennsylvania, died on October 9, at Atlantic City, where he had gone to recover his health, which had been broken down for more than a year.

The death is announced of David S. Keck, for more than thirty years treasurer of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association, and instructor in English in the Keystone Normal School, Kutztown.

The million-dollar fund for building and educational endowment of Vassar College has been over-subscribed. Payments of $1,019,911 have been made in addition to subscriptions to buildings and other gifts which bring the total up to $1,047,969. The most striking feature of the campaign is that not only have outside gifts from donors been paid in full but payments from the alumnæ classes have exceeded their pledges.

The U. S. Civil Service Commission announces for November 20 an examination for chief clerk, for men only. A vacancy in the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., at $2,000 a year, will be filled from this examination. Competitors will not be required to report for examination at any place, but will be rated on education, experience and thesis. Graduation from a college or university of recognized standing

and at least two years' subsequent responsible experience in some administrative capacity in connection with educational work are prerequisites. Under the subject of education additional credit will be given for special study or post-graduate work in education. Applicants must not have reached their fiftieth birthday on the date of the examination.

Acting on the recommendation of Superintendent William M. Davidson, the Board of Education of Pittsburgh is establishing a school for children who are dull of hearing and deaf. It will be centrally located and conducted in connection with the School of Speech Improvement.

Ohio University has established a secondary school for observation and practise in connection with its school of education, to be known as the John Hancock High School.

The *Journal* of the American Medical Association states that at Cincinnati, twenty-four of the forty-two school teachers who took the physical examination for positions in the public schools were found to be underweight. None was rejected; one was conditioned on account of defective vision and six others were advised to consult oculists; two were found to have impaired hearing, and one diseased tonsils.

Registration at the University of Pennsylvania, while not yet complete, will probably show a loss of about 20 per cent. The registration for 1916–17 was about 9,000, and the loss will bring the figures down to those of 1914–15, which were 7,152. The return temporarily of medical, dental and veterinary students who had been drafted will enlarge the expected total in these schools. More than 80 members of the faculty have enlisted. There is a large increase in the number of women students, especially in the school of education and the college courses for teachers. The greatest loss is in the law school, which has dropped from 200 to less than 100. Freshmen classes in biology, chemical engineering and civil engineering show an increase.

As planned by Superintendent I. B. Bush, of Erie, the boy choosing the industrial course, upon entering the high school, will spend approximately half of his time in the study of English, algebra and general science, and half in drafting, practise and shop work. During the ensuing summer, the boy will work in one of the factories of Erie as a trial apprentice. At the beginning of the second year, the student regularly alternates between the school and the shop; and this system is continued until he graduates. Before the beginning of each school term the boy, his parents, the employer and the school authorities agree upon the service, the wages and the opportunities of work to be given during the year. Under this plan the student will work thirty weeks and will go to school twenty weeks in each year. During the first year he will spend 1,160 hours in school work and 540 hours in shop work; during the second, third and fourth years he will spend an average of 560 hours in school work and 1,620 hours in shop work each year. That there may be no time lost in vocational selection in the high school, it is planned to have the boy try himself out in the grammar grades in the fundamentals of woodworking, metalworking, electrical construction, sheet metal construction, printing, concrete construction and drafting practise. The manufacturers of the city are cooperating heartily in this plan, which is under the general direction of E. L. Bowman.

Nearly two hundred and fifty teachers, superintendents, principals, and other persons engaged in school work have been placed in positions since last March by the committee on recommendations of the college of education of the State University of Iowa. Many more have been aided directly in obtaining their positions by having the committee send credentials and recommendations. This does not include a large number of persons placed in the last month who have not as yet reported to the committee. The most popular branch, if the figures of the committee's books may be taken as indicative, is English, in which 37 positions were filled. Mathematics and history followed with 33 and 32 positions, respectively. German ranks next with 22 positions and Latin just behind with 19. Many more could have been placed in posi-

tions as teachers of home economics, manual training, agriculture, science, and athletics if they had been registered with the committee, according to those in charge. The highest salaries, an average of $164 a month for nine months, will be paid to teachers of psychology and education and supervisors or superintendents in public or normal schools. Chemistry teachers were next with an average of $157, but the number of positions was small and chiefly in higher educational institutions. English, which led in the number of positions filled, yielded an average salary of approximately $84; botany, $75; history, $96; Latin, $78; mathematics, $97; commercial branches, $86; physics, $115; public speaking, $96; German, $75; drawing and painting, $72; agriculture, $102.

The Liverpool Education Committee has confirmed recommendations of a sub-committee authorizing the establishment of a school for the training of marine engineers. The London *Times* states that a proposal of this kind was set on foot some eleven years ago, but as the students of that day preferred to attend the cramming schools, and the Board of Trade gave no sign of altering the examinations or raising the standard of a marine engineer's education, it was not proceeded with. Last year, however, the Liverpool Egineering Society appointed a committee to consider the education of the marine engineer with the object of improving his general status and ability. Part of that committee's statement was not flattering to marine engineers in general. The unanimous opinion of the committee was that the Board of Trade regulations are not satisfactory, and are not such as to ensure that a certificated man is capable of intelligently controlling and overcoming many of the difficulties presented by the main or auxiliary machinery and the boilers of modern steamers. This comment was aimed at the holders of first or second class certificates. The committee agreed that the fundamental weakness of the marine engineer as a class lies in his lack of general knowledge of English, mathematics, physics, and applied mechanics, and that consequently there is a notable lack of general intelligent reasoning power, which has become essential for the satisfactory control of the increasingly complicated machinery utilized in ships of the mercantile marine. This indictment of the methods of educating marine engineers was followed by the statement that evidence had been adduced of the inability of certificated engineers to make simple reports or returns, simple entries for the log, and other simple operations which could be done readily with even a small power of reasoning.

A meeting was held on September 14 at St. Bride Institute to urge on the British government the provision of greater facilities for the education and training of those engaged in the printing and kindred trades. Mr. George Eaton Hart, the chairman of the St. Bride Foundation Printing School, presided. The chairman said that the printing industry in the United Kingdom, with an annual productive value of something like fifty millions, had no completely equipped school provided for it. During the last three or four years the trade had had before it two schemes—the London County Council plan for a central school of printing, with two subsidiary schools; and the plan introduced by Mr. Riddell, principal of St. Bride Foundation Printing School, for the selection, education, and training of boys for two years in a secondary trade school before they entered the printing office. One provided the building and equipment and the other the machinery by which suitable boys would be attracted to the business and scientifically trained. The following resolution was proposed by Lord Burnham: "That this meeting urges upon the government the importance of early legislation making attendance at technical schools during the day compulsory upon young people. It expresses emphatic approval of the resolutions passed by the London County Council in favor of the provision and endowment of a Central School of Printing to meet the requirements of the London printing and kindred trades, and calls upon that body to give effect to its decisions without delay. It also recommends the various sectional organizations of the London printing trade to press for the setting up of a representative committee for the selection, educa-

tion, and training of apprentices." Lord Burnham said that there must be mutual co-operation between employers and employed. They wished to do away with the waste of ability of which Fleet-street offered so many examples. The resolution was seconded by Mr. Bowerman, and carried.

The text of an address on technical research and scientific research, with special reference to the needs of the leather industries, delivered by Professor Michael Sadler, vice-chancellor of Leeds University, to the members of the United Tanners' Federation on July 17, has now been issued. In the course of his address the vice-chancellor declared that "the key to the chief difficulties which we have to overcome will be found in an improved secondary education," and suggested that the meeting should send to the government its opinion that a prolonged course of elementary instruction (with practical work) in science should form a substantial part of the education of all pupils in secondary schools. Technical education, the vice-chancellor said, "in order to be effective must be preceded by a good general education. This general education will be furnished for the more favored and promising pupils by the secondary schools, and for a far larger number by the public elementary schools followed by continuation classes. Granted great improvements in the intellectual vigor of all those schools, we shall find that technical education will become increasingly valuable and effective." In education, he concluded, "the chief task lies with the employer and the parent, not with the schoolmaster and the university don." The parent must set the right example; the employer must make his office and his workshop a school.

DISCUSSION AND CORRESPONDENCE

GRADUATE SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION

Since the year 1914 many of the leading universities of the country have established strictly graduate schools of education open only to persons possessing at least a bachelor's degree from some reputable institution. The attendance in these institutions has been large and the product excellent. A year or more of graduate study under such favorable circumstances brings out the latent talent of the student sufficiently to make his after years of teaching experience far more efficient and helpful. The opportunity for research and original study of vital educational problems under the sympathetic direction of able leaders develops the teaching spirit as nothing else can.

The most successful students in this graduate work are those who have had a fair foundation of undergraduate study in education and psychology, and next to these are the teachers, principals, and superintendents who in connection with the bachelor's degree have had sufficient—but not a surplus—practical experience. One may be too young or too old to do this work efficiently and to profit most by graduate study. Much depends on the right foundation and the majority of students do not have it. Most of the undergraduate work in education has been given without thought of foundation or preparation for further study. Many students present themselves with at least forty hours' credit in undergraduate courses in education, not one of which has laid the foundation for graduate work in education. Twelve hours of undergraduate courses in education wisely selected will fit the individual far better for efficient graduate study than any number of courses selected at random without thought or aim. To the student of ambition, aim and latent strength, the graduate schools of education offer a most fitting opportunity.

That these schools are appreciated is shown by the many and earnest calls for the product. During the last three weeks the graduate school of education, University of Nebraska, has had three calls from normal schools alone for every candidate properly fitted to fulfil the positions. The time is not far distant when normal schools will demand of all members of their faculties at least a master's degree in the subject taught with a graduate minor in education. The best teachers in the high schools, principals, and superintendents should have equal preparation to the best teachers of the normal schools. Such prepara-

tion is shown by the graduate teacher's diploma based on a master's or doctor's degree with the major in the subject to be taught and the graduate minor in education.

Excerpts from a few of the recent calls made on the graduate school of education for teachers may be of interest to students desiring to prepare for that type of work:

We have need of three men for principal and superintendents, salary $1,400 to $1,800. Must hold first-grade professional certificate granted on university degree plus twenty-five hours of professional training in education.—State commissioner of education.

Can you furnish us with a suitable person for general critic work—Latin and English—in model school; also professor of mathematics, normal school. Both should be college graduates with special preparation in education, the latter to have a master's degree in mathematics.—President state normal.

We are anxious to secure a strong woman to head our home economics department. We want an experienced and well-educated teacher with at least a master's degree and graduate credit in education.—President four-year state normal.

We are in need of director of physical education, one who is able to do constructive work, diagnose physical conditions and direct the whole plan of physical education. You understand the broad requirements in this line. He must be a college man with special training on the above subjects.—State normal president.

We need an expert in education, must have a master's or doctor's degree in that subject with special training in psychology.—President four-year state normal.

We need a teacher who has professional training, to teach English and Latin in the eighth and ninth grades of our training school. . . . Must possess a bachelor's degree from a university or a diploma from a good normal school.—President two-year state normal.

We are looking for a supervisor of practise, a woman. . . . Should be a college graduate with special professional training in education; successful teaching experience in elementary schools, superior personality, temperament, etc.—Principal two-year state normal requiring graduation from a four-year high school for entrance.

We are in need of a director for our ten-grade practise school. Will be given some classes in the education department of the teachers college; must have at least a master's degree in education. Salary $1,800. . . .—President state normal school.

We want a man well trained in education for our teachers college faculty who can teach and supervise the elementary courses in science. . . . We want an all-around, wide-awake, energetic man who is not afraid to take hold of things. . . . The man will be rapidly promoted to a full professorship in the university, provided he makes good. Salary for the first year $1,500.—Dean of Teachers College and Normal School, State University.

These calls for high-grade teachers represent but a few of the many received by the dean of the graduate school of education, University of Nebraska, and they are no doubt duplicated many times by every first-class graduate school of education in the country; the initial salary varies from a thousand to twenty-five hundred. The war tends to decrease rather than increase the number of the above calls. The normal schools are not to blame for poorly prepared men and women on their faculties. They try to procure the best available. The state normal schools alone need over five hundred new recruits annually to replenish their faculties, not to mention the many other public institutions looking to the graduate schools of education for help. If these graduate schools of education study carefully the fields to be served by their product, hew close to the line, never give for truth what is not truth, they will win the confidence of our best educators and greatly stimulate the development of true education.

G. W. A. Luckey
Dean of the Graduate School of Education,
University of Nebraska

QUOTATIONS

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY AND PROFESSOR CATTELL

It is fortunate for the welfare of Columbia University and of other American universities that Professor Beard's wise and courageous resignation has disassociated the issue of academic freedom from the issue of patriotism. As Professor Dewey says in a printed statement:

There may have been other reasons why the trustees wanted to dismiss Professor Cattell, but they

did not state those reasons. They smeared the whole case over with patriotism.

Owing to my opposition to the conditions of absentee landlordism and autocratic control, so admirably described in Professor Beard's letter of resignation, the president and trustees have on two previous occasions proposed resolutions dismissing me, and have an each occasion been compelled to withdraw them, owing to the unanimous protest of my then colleagues. The trustees have now hid behind the flag to assassinate. It is both libelous and absurd to dismiss me for opposing "the effective enforcement of the laws of the United States" and for "sedition and treason." I spent a large part of the week in which my dismissal was arranged drawing up for the War Department plans for the scientific selection of aviators. My oldest son, with my approval and assistance, was one of the first to enlist in the army and go to France, where he is in charge of sanitation in the Harvard Hospital recently bombed by the Germans.

As it is important that the efforts now being made to reform Columbia University be not weakened by an irrelevant appeal to blind patriotism, I wish to state distinctly that the statements by President Butler and by a committee of the trustees that my dismissal was due to a letter that I wrote on August 23 to members of the Congress asking them to support a measure then before the Congress are purposely misleading. A resolution to dismiss me—not for the first time—was introduced at a meeting of the trustees on March 5, on account of a confidential letter which I had written to members of the Faculty Club. We had been warned by the president that we must vacate the house that the trustees had loaned us. I ironically proposed that the trustees be asked to assign to us the president's house, erected at a cost of $300,000 from funds given for education, and said: "If our many-talented and much-climbing president should be swept into the national vice-presidency by a reactionary wave, it is not likely that his successor will care to live in such a mausoleum." This frivolous remark in a confidential letter the trustees regarded as *lèse majesté*. After a storm in the academic demitasse, the committee of nine of the council took action, Professor Seligman, its chairman, writing to me on June 5: "I want to see you at an early date to talk over the general situation. As you perhaps know, our committee of nine presented to the trustees a report strongly urging that no action whatever be taken in your case and I am happy to state that the trustees accepted our recommendation. The net result of the episodes this spring is that the council committee has now put itself into a secure position of intermediary between the trustees and the faculties. We all feel that a great step forward has been taken."

I do not, however, share Professor Seligman's opinion in holding a committee of executive officers to be a panacea. On June 13 I wrote to him: "I fear the academic situation will not be improved by placing the powers of inquisition in the hands of a committee, the majority of whom are deans who are nominated by the president, and, according to the statutes, must 'act in subordination to the president.'" It is fortunate for Columbia that the present movement for reform comes from the students and from the teachers. The trustees are in place only in Wall Street and in Trinity Churchyard; the president is fit only to be a ward politician. A private corporation which now taxes the people to maintain the privileged classes must ultimately be taken over by the people and conducted for their welfare.—J. McKeen Cattell in a statement printed in the New York *Evening Post* and other daily papers.

BOOKS AND LITERATURE

HIGH-SCHOOL ENTOMOLOGY

School Entomology. An Elementary Textbook of Entomology for Secondary Schools and Agricultural Short Courses. By E. Dwight Sanderson and L. M. Peairs. New York, John Wiley & Sons. 1917.

The growing sense of the importance of entomology is indicated by the fact that it is thought worth while to prepare a special text

for high-school use, introducing the subject to the pupils in simple terms, with a minimum of technical language. "School Entomology" consists of two sections, the first dealing with the general aspects of the subject, and the second with economic entomology. A brief account of the structure of insects is followed by chapters indicating the principal characters of the orders and more important families. The second part deals with insects affecting man and domestic animals, affecting household goods and stored food products, field-crop, garden and orchard insects and methods of control. A list of publications and of the addresses of state and experiment station entomologists forms an appendix.

The authors have been very successful in their attempt to prepare a brief and clearly written outline of the subject, avoiding the technicalities which would puzzle and repel a boy or girl. In some cases, perhaps, they have gone too far in the latter direction, as for instance in the key on p. 25, where we read:

"F. White, soft-bodied, colonial. Termites. *Isoptera.*

FF. Darker in color, bodies firm, in colonies or solitary. Ants and some wasps. *Hymenoptera.*"

This is not sufficiently accurate or intelligible and gives no hint of the radical and easily recognized differences between the groups concerned.

In general, the information given is reliable, but we are astonished to read on p. 112 that the word Coccinellidæ means Coccid-killers. The illustrations of the second part, mostly borrowed from the U. S. Bureau of Entomology, are nearly all admirable.

In the first part of the book the more important families are illustrated from photographs, usually showing a number of species. These are not very good, and in a number of cases broken and decrepit specimens have been chosen for photography. There is, however, a decided advantage in showing a number of forms, including many of those most likely to be found.

It is stated on the title page that this is the first edition. No doubt subsequent editions will show many improvements, and perhaps it may be possible to prepare special editions for different regions of the country. Thus, the Californian student would be disappointed to find in the chapter on orchard insects nothing about those affecting the orange. In the copy before me, several pages of advertising matter are inserted in the midst of the index. If this is intentional, it is a very objectionable innovation.

T. D. A. Cockerell
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THE COLLEGE PRESIDENT

A CONCISE BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following list of references comprises a select bibliography upon the subject of the president of the American college and university. The fact is well known that the administration of the college or university is intimately associated with the functions and powers of the president. The references begin with the year 1900.

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AN EXPERIMENT IN CORRECTING TARDINESS AMONG FIRST-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS

The experiment to be described was carried on in one of the first-year annexes of the High School of Commerce of New York City, located on the lower East Side, Dr. Walter H. Eddy, teacher-in-charge. The population of the annex, numbering about four hundred boys, included one or two of Irish parentage, two or three German, perhaps a score of Italian, and the rest Jewish. The annex had been established to serve as a neighborhood high school, and was started during the winter of 1914–15, at a time when unemployment had not yet been affected by the war, and when such measures for relieving distress as one-cent luncheons, etc., were being tried. One of the main reasons for instituting the annex had been the desirability of saving the boys the fifty cents carfare and the lunch money necessary if they were to go to any of the regular high-school establishments.

Despite the fact that the boys were almost all resident within fifteen blocks of the annex buildings and so within walking distance, tardiness was frequent. The explanation of this was found in a number of local factors. Many of the boys did outside work before coming to school, either for their parents or for other people. In some cases the parents remained in their stores until twelve or one o'clock at night, and the boys had the responsibility of opening for business every morning and remaining till relieved. In other cases the boys remained up late to close the stores and so were always pressed for sleep. Other boys had other duties to perform before school time. Many had to say prayers every morning. Some had to go regularly to the synagogue in memory of some recent death in the family. Some had to depend on themselves to awaken, as their parents usually left before daylight, and, as the sun was not troublesome in most of the bedrooms, sleeping over was easy. Such boys would then have to get their own breakfast, an added difficulty, and perhaps further, might have to dress younger brothers and sisters and get them started to school. In addition to all these contributing factors, there were at least the average number of naturally unpunctual boys, and probably more than the average number who were in school under protest, because their parents were anxious to have them better themselves through education.

During the term in which the experiment was carried on, from February to June, 1916, exactly one hundred and fifty-two boys came to have their names entered on the tardy rolls for a total of two hundred and twenty-seven cases. It should be understood that these figures represent two grades or degrees of tardiness: viz., boys arriving after nine o'clock and counted on the official school records as "late," and boys arriving after the preliminary five-minutes-to-nine bell. No distinction was made in my dealings between the two sorts of cases. One obvious result of the requirement that the boys get to school before five minutes to nine was a great reduction in the number of those arriving after nine o'clock. In other words there were comparatively few boys officially "late."

The method finally adopted was reached ex-

perimentally. To begin with, punitive measures alone were tried. Tardiness was penalized by after-school detention in a special room. To make this detention doubly oppressive, no studying was permitted; the boys were required to sit erect and maintain silence and order for one hour with added periods for disorder, etc. This was the method then in use at the main building of the High School of Commerce and was adopted from there. In some cases however, a manifest hardship was worked. A great many of the boys had some form of after-school employment, and in most cases, the presence of the boy was required as soon after dismissal as possible, generally by three o'clock. To require such a boy to remain in school till three-thirty was often the equivalent of causing him to lose his job. As an alternative I allowed one such boy the opportunity of making up his detention by reporting a corresponding amount of time before school. From this practise it was but a step to the development of the method finally adopted and used the remainder of the term.

The option of coming early instead of remaining after school was offered to all tardy pupils. In place of remaining one hour after school the task of reporting ten minutes early every morning for an indefinite period, usually two to four weeks, was assigned. With this option went the proviso that failure to report early any morning must be made up the same afternoon after school by one hour's detention. The whole plan was explained to each boy who came late, and emphasis was placed on the fact that the responsibility was on his shoulders. This explanation was generally given on the afternoon of the day on which the tardiness occurred. As soon as the plan had been made clear, the boy was allowed to go and he might thereafter have no after-school detention for his tardiness. If, however, he failed to meet the requirements as to before-school reporting, the after-school detention rule was strictly enfored. For boys with after-school employment, the responsibility of extra punctuality was all the heavier.

The underlying principle of the plan as it finally developed was merely the formation of the habit of allowing a safe margin of time in getting to school, an extra careful punctuality. This was explained to the boys, and, when occasion demanded, to their parents. Parents were sent for when a boy failed to report either before or after school, and also when a boy failed to come consecutively early long enough to deserve excuse from the tardy rolls. In a few cases boys were on the lists as long as three months before they succeeded in coming consecutively early for three weeks. In practically every case in which the cooperation of the parents was asked it was granted willingly and apparently in appreciation of the purpose of the scheme. However, the divergence between East Side parent and child was often so great that the parental aid was of little value. In such cases, in addition to the after-school detention, it was sometimes necessary to hold the boy out of class to emphasize the necessity of complying with the regulations. Undoubtedly a number of boys hastened their departure from school rather than comply with the rules. Their type is comparatively common, however, and is represented by the boy who has been able to slip along in his school career without really forming any habits of industry or getting any thorough training in school work. When confronted by the necessity of making good, either by reason of pressure to study more, or by being required to meet exactly some school regulation, such a boy applies for discharge or leaves school informally.

The administration of the plan was comparatively simple. The tardiness was reported by monitors stationed at the entrances of the school. They instructed tardy boys to see me, and later handed me lists of the names of those who had come late. The tardy boys reported to register personally the same afternoon, their names having already been entered on the lists. These lists were kept on sheets of quadrille paper, the names in groups by classes or sections. Opposite each name was entered the date or dates of tardiness, and the remaining squares were used to keep a record for the next few weeks. New record sheets were made monthly. This method seemed simpler than

a card system which was tried at first. Possibly in a larger group cards might work better.

The afternoon detention classes were supervised by the teachers of the annex in rotation. For each boy present a mark was made in the square for that date. For boys absent from school or who might have cut detention no mark was entered. That was left for me to check up later. Credit for morning attendance was entered in red ink by monitors especially assigned for the work. Credit for afternoon attendance was entered in black ink. This made it easy to determine whether a boy had registered early a sufficient number of consecutive times.

In addition to the routine duties performed as already outlined by monitors and teachers, there remained finally the general supervision of delinquent cases, the interviewing of parents, the checking of absences, and the general oversight of the records with a view to the excusing of such boys as had demonstrated their ability to be punctual over a period of two or three weeks. One condition necessary to the success of the scheme lay in making tardiness a major transgression, at least to the extent of giving detention for tardiness precedence over any other ordinary assignment. A second condition depended on the service of reliable monitors who would report according to the clock and not according to personal predilection. Finally also, the presence of a teacher during the period of ante-school registration was generally desirable.

The results of the experiments may be judged on several counts. Three will be considered, viz., the effect on the boys as determined by their own statements, the effect on the boys as determined from the number of "second offenses," and finally the effect on the amount of tardiness for the whole annex.

The evidence from the boys themselves came in the form of occasional voluntary statements to the effect that they had learned to get up earlier than they had been accustomed to before. No systematic attempt was made to get statements from them. The interest in this connection came from the evident conclusion on the boys' part that they had learned to do something which was to their advantage.

As already noted, of the total of two hundred twenty-seven cases entered on the tardy lists, seventy-five represented second, third or fourth offenders. Twenty of these latter occurred in February and should not be counted, because the new method was not really in operation until March. Of the fifty-five remaining, sixteen came in March, nine in April, and thirty in May. During June only officially "late" cases were recorded, so that the record can not well be compared with the record for earlier months. During the whole term there were fifteen cases of "third offenders," and two cases of "fourth." Excluding the February cases for the reason noted above, there were only five cases of third offense and one of fourth.

The total number of cases declined gradually during the four months for which complete record was kept. February had eighty-four of the total, March seventy-five, April twenty-one (three weeks only), and May forty-four. The decrease is even more marked when it is noted that the February figures were based on only two thirds of the school population. A full count on that basis would give February one hundred twenty-six.

The experiment may on the basis of the above figures be recorded as successful on all three counts. What evidence there is showed improved habits of punctuality. Second offenders were comparatively few, and third and fourth timers almost nil. Total tardiness was also decreased.

A second trial of the experiment has been carried on during the present spring term on a smaller scale, in a single official class in Bushwick High School, Annex 75. The class consists of third-term boys, with twenty-six on the live register. To the present time, with one week left to complete a half term, there have been only three cases of official lateness, one of which was excusable. Figured in per cent., on a basis of forty days, these three cases mean three tenths of one per cent.

R. C. Benedict

April, 1917

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